Introduction
India lives in her six lakhs of villages. Eighty per cent of the rural families depend on agriculture for their livelihood. Farming is their main occupation for about 190 days in the year. Along with non-farming occupations for about 30 days they get an annual per capita income of Rs. 110/- per year. Agriculture being a seasonal occupation total unemployment prevails for about 140 days per year. 

Whear (1978) as cited by Singh and Singh (1981). This makes India one of the poorest in the world, ranking 106th in terms of per capita incomes in the U.N. Family. The number of people living below the poverty line happens to be 317 millions of which 260 millions belong to the rural sector (UNICEF, 1981).

The population of India is ever on the increase. The latest statistics show that the bottom line of Indian population is 663.8 millions, an increase of almost 25 per cent since the last census, a decade ago (Saari, 1981). Increase in population has led to the increase in labour force with low living standards and poor socio-economic conditions. In spite of the Five Year Plans aimed at industrialisation of the country, only 10-15 per cent can be absorbed in the industrial sector. As a result, the rural economy is characterised by low productivity, sizable unemployment and under employment, social injustice and inequality.
with inadequacy of different infrastructural facilities. No nation in the world committed to democracy has faced such a formidable task as India to eradicate poverty.

India's commitment to eradicate poverty and provide the masses with an opportunity to work and earn enough to meet their basic needs, will succeed to the extent the efforts taken by leaders for transformation of the traditional society, the attention given to planning and implementation of strategies for change and the selection of technologies that will contribute to the development of a just and sustainable society, are adequate (Ensminger, 1979). Gandhi's formula for accepting, advocating and applying technology was that it should be capable of being used by most of the people and beneficial to the majority. The only ways in which the less developed countries such as India can solve their problem of employment is through labour intensive technology asserts Nkemere, (Navi, 1980).

The solution to India's economic problems lies in paying greater attention to agriculture, and cottage industries (Singh, 1979). Village and small sector units alone can help to remove poverty, solve the unemployment problem, and reduce the existing income disparities. In this context, Gandhi's (1980) advice on 20 point programme, with its action oriented package plan, can be expected to raise the living standards of the people, specially the weaker sections of the society.
The major objectives of development as accepted by planners and the government include growth, employment, social justice, spatial coordination and quality of life. Rec. (1980). Integrated development means development that takes into account all these objectives and tries to link them together through plans, programmes and policies that are followed for the promotion of development.

Expansion of employment and reduction of underemployment being the most pressing problem of the nation, the V Plan aimed at removal of poverty. Its emphasis was on the creation of additional employment opportunities particularly for the weaker sections through special programmes, (George, 1980).

The VI Plan document aims at achieving agricultural and rural development, full employment in rural areas and removal of poverty within the next ten years through the Integrated Rural Development Programme. The IRDP is specially focussed on the target group comprising small and marginal farmers, agricultural labourers, rural artisans, whose economic improvement is considered to be one of the most important concern. The strategy is to combine the agricultural programmes with the plans for cottage and village industries and make it into a comprehensive development programme so as to bring about a more balanced development of the rural economy. Growth with redistributed incomes has
thus come to become the paramount goal of Integrated Rural Development (Adya and Lahoti, 1980).

As Devadas (1976) states the ultimate aims of the Indian planners and policy makers is economic growth with social justice. The strategies for economic growth are eradication of poverty, self-reliance, combating malnutrition, control of population, education of the masses and development of a scientific tempo and promotion of science and technology in the rural areas. The goal of development is to put to maximum use the available resources so that the living standards of a large sector of the population is raised. In this huge task Indian women have a great role to play since they constitute half the nation’s population. Women shoulder several major responsibilities in the home, farm and the community. Hence they are indispensable for the development of the society. Unless women take an active part in socio-economic development, the country cannot march forward, (Bhattacharya, 1973).

The attitude of the Indian society towards women’s problems and education has not been wholesome, but rather discriminating. That the role of women in the society is not recognised has not only affected their education adversely, but also restricted their effective participation in the programmes of national development (Hindu, 1979). The literacy rate of rural women forming 50 per cent of the
total population happens to be 13 per cent (International Women's Year, 1975). A vast majority of the Indian women are backward, steeped in ignorance and superstition. Legally they have complete equality with men, but unless the large masses of women are educated and enabled to take their rightful place in the society the equality granted to them would be illusory (Reddy, 1979).

The effectiveness of the participation of women in the process of national development depends on the quality and type of education imparted to them. A well organised system of non formal education tailored to suit the needs of people involved in different kinds of activities is a crucial need for giving women the knowledge and skills necessary for their improvement, (Avinashilingam, 1977). The need for closer linkage of the educational system with employment opportunities has been recognised as necessary to cater to the development needs of the country. Apart from trained manpower for various sectors, provision of marketable skills to job seekers assumes significance. Hence currently steps undertaken for improving the position of women in India aimed at eradication of illiteracy, increase productivity and economic self-reliance.

Jai Shanker (1979) points out, there is a relationship between education and economic participation. It has been observed that education promotes female employment. The
unemployment rate among women of all age groups taken together was 7.01 per cent against 3.07 per cent among men. In the most productive age group 15-29, the problem was more critical as it was 11.61 per cent against 6.81 per cent among men (Hindu, 1981). This shows the unfavourable position occupied by women in the employment sphere. Even though rural women shoulder abundant responsibilities and perform a wide spectrum of duties related to the farm and the home, their labour is never computed in economic terms. Women are generally employed in very low earning sectors demanding hard work, and low skill and technology. Female participation is found in industries related to textiles, tobacco products, forestry, wood products characterised with low remuneration, low skill and high labour intensity thus jeopardising their socio-economic position and preventing them from acquiring job oriented skills, (Nitra, 1979).

Reservation for women, education and training in improved technology and technical education has been recommended by Mitra et al., (1979) in selected household industries where female employment is practicable and these among others include sewing and professional establishments. The study group on Home and Rural Industries (1979) recommends that employment among women can be created production and processing sectors and also in servicing sectors but priority must be given to illiterate women and dropouts in the planning of such programmes.
Women find a place in many of the areas organised by the Khadi and Village Industries Commission. In activities where feminine skills and artistic talents are demanded there is a greater participation of women. In Khadi, spinning cotton is mostly done by women in Ambar Charka units. In both the Khadi and Handloom weaving women assist in the processing and production centers and find a significant place. They are absorbed in sericulture on a cooperative basis (Khadi and Village Industries Commission, 1979).

Some voluntary organisations in India undertake selected welfare schemes. Among these the Central Social Welfare Board and the Bharatiya Gramin Mahila Sangh provide a number of programmes for the development and uplift of women, such as condensed courses, vocational training courses, socio-economic programmes for needy and handicapped women. During the VI Plan period, at least one lakh of needy women are expected to be provided with employment under the socio-economic programmes of the CSWB (Social Welfare, 1978).

From less than 2 lakhs in 1950-51 it had a growth rate to Rs.2.35 crores in 1981 (Kastagi, 1981).

Giri (1978) points out that during the off-season periods there is large scope for village industries particularly labour intensive projects with low capital investment, can provide employment with high standards in production of essential consumer goods which can attract the Indian and foreign markets. One such industry is the readymade
garment industry providing immense scope for gainful employment for trained women.

The development of the garment industry which is at its infancy has led to widespread employment of women in their homes and community. Some entrepreneurs employ as many as two to three hundred women in piece work basis, while hundreds of others make laces or embroidery in different centres of the country. Very often a small operator with not more than ten sewing machines operating from his own home has a turnover of a lakh of rupees a year catering to India's growing ready-made garment requirements. (Saig, 1976).

Most of the garment units of India are small suburban units occupying space varying from 150 to 200 sq. metres in the metropolitan areas. Within such small space large labour force of 50-60 workers consisting of an even mix of skilled tailors, master cutters and unskilled helpers are employed. Ninety per cent of the work force in such units is female labour (Shah, 1980). Decentralised garment manufacturing is at present confined to exporters with limited resources. The export of approximately Rs.400 crores of garments per annum is the joint effort of more than 2000 entrepreneurs who are widespread throughout India (Shah, 1980). Despite its scope for a high export potential and earning of foreign exchange, the garment industry has not been able
to prosper and grow due to constant neglect and the multi-
ferious impediments in its development.

Clothing comes second in the triumvirate of funda-
mental necessities, next to food only. However it has not
gained adequate recognition, considering the low standards
of living of the rural masses, who are forced to spend nearly
90 per cent of their hard earned income on food. Neverthe-
less, the clothing industry can provide jobs particularly to
the womenfolk who apart from sewing in several garment facto-
ries will also be able to make or augment their living through
self employment in their homes (Garments India, 1980).

Integrated Rural Development Programme is to raise the
income of 3000 families who are below poverty line
(Kurukshetra, 1981; Sinha, 1981). Since one of the major
objective of the IRD Programme is employment generation and
consequent income generation and since the family is the
unit of planning and production, garment making can be
promoted as a home based industry in every IRD Block. An
effort is made in this direction by giving needy women short
training courses in tailoring, and the government has approved
the scheme for purchasing sewing machines in the blocks.
Tamilnadu being one of the important centres for the produc-
tion of Khadi and handloom fabrics garment making can be
taken up in the 161 blocks adopted for the IRD programme in
VI Plan.
With a population more than 680 millions for whom clothing is a fundamental necessity India has a great potential for readymade goods. There are very few trained designers, master cutters and skilled tailors equipped for garment making as an industry. A dire need exists for training facilities, particularly for designing garments according to the latest trends in fashions both in India and abroad, for cutting garments in a massive scale, involving economic use of labour (SITRA; 1979; Velsankar, 1977).

The physical stature of men, women and children vary from place to place. Sizing of the garment is a very important aspect for those who are manufacturing garments. Excellent guidelines are available from publications for those who are exporting ready-made garments to countries such as the United States of America (Mehta, 1980). In contrast reports of the few studies conducted by the Textile Committees in the various states of India on Consumer preferences and purchases reveal that readymade garments while high priced, reflect improper fitting and poor stitching aspects. The appearance and finish of such garments depend on accurate fitting and skilful stitching.

To achieve the above, paper patterns are fundamental. The idea of designing patterns out of paper to enable anyone to make garments originated from Buttericks in the 1920s. Women have been fascinated by paper patterns to
themselves clothes. Patterns in graded sizes were cut out in tissue papers and the Butterick magazines always reported the latest fashions. These patterns are widespread in the capital cities of the European countries. (Clothing Journal, 1980). The enormous number of paper patterns sold in the western countries is an indication of the needle women's appreciation of pattern making. The need for such paper patterns formulated out of standardised body measurements for different age groups is crucial.

A paper pattern helps one to obtain garments of good appearance, and correct fit. However it is regrettable that very little research work has been conducted in this area in India (Kohli, ISI, 1979). The scope for design manipulation in the area of children's clothing is great since the trend for stitched wear is pronounced among the younger generation. Similarly studies on consumer preferences conducted in selected garments or on preschoolers as a basis for standardising body measurements and formulation of paper patterns, are very much needed. Hence an attempt has been made in this study along these directions. Body measurements were standardised for selected women's garments for formulating paper patterns. Also for the preschoolers for the purposes of designing patterns for dresses, measurements were standardised.
Since the aim of the IRD programme is to generate employment opportunities in the rural areas this study was planned for the most productive age group namely young girls from selected villages. They were provided vocational training in garment making. The educational programme was evaluated in terms of development of skills, knowledge, interest and aspirations. Training was administered to produce a few selected garments using the formulated paper patterns. Sale of goods was promoted and orders from consumers were invited. The feasibility of the garment unit as an income generating occupation for young girls in the villages was assessed. Also consumer reactions towards the produced readymade goods were studied.